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ABSTRACT

This paper reports the results of an exploratory study of the relation between teachers' perceptions of bureaucratic and professional role orientations and their perceptions of the principal change-facilitator style. An additional focus was on the cultural aspects of school organizations involved in planned-change initiatives. The sample consisted of all teachers in 94 schools in Louisiana. Responses were received from approximately 40 percent of questionnaire recipients, for 1,921 usable teacher responses. Correlations between teachers' self-perceptions of Organizational Autonomy and perceptions of the principal change facilitator style were all negative in direction and very moderate in magnitude for the total sample of schools and by school level. Correlations between teacher responses for Bureaucratic Orientation and the principal change-facilitator style were positive, but similar in magnitude. Although what these results really reflect when considered collectively is not clear, what is apparent is the importance of teachers' beliefs and values in understanding how they perceive others and the organization. Three figures and three tables present study findings. An appendix contains conceptual definitions related to the principal change-facilitator style. (Contains 60 references.) (SLD)

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EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' WORK ORIENTATIONS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPAL CHANGE FACILITATOR STYLE

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Exploring the Relationship between

Teachers' Work Orientations and their

Perceptions of Principal Change Facilitator Style

While schools are recognized as complex, interactive organizations, the education literature of the past twenty years characterizes American public education by frequent and recurring calls for educational reform intended to change key elements of their structures and/or functions (Cuban, 1990; Murphy, 1989).

Prior research efforts have relied primarily on models focused on examining the *effects* of change efforts and not the *process* of change. However, a review of the recent literature suggests that investigations of planned change seems to be shifting toward greater interest in systematically studying relationships among variables that relate to the process of change, rather than the effects or outcomes of change (Corbett, Firestone & Rossman, 1987; Darling-Hammond, 1990; Elmore, 1987; Firestone & Corbett, 1988; Waugh & Punch, 1987). Corbett, Dawson, and Firestone (1984) point out that "researchers are beginning to turn their attention....to understanding the *conditions* [italics added] under which change projects succeed or fail" (p. 1). Corbett, et al. (1984) also provide empirical evidence suggesting that the extent to which classroom changes are implemented and incorporated into everyday practice are "acutely susceptible" to the influence of contextual conditions in the school.

As principals and teachers interact, their respective role orientations may reciprocally influence perceptions and resulting behavior (e.g., principal change facilitator style, work/role orientations) in ways similar to a conceptual model presented by Ellett and

Walberg (1979). However, systematic studies specifically focused on teachers' and principals' organizational role orientations (e.g., bureaucratic and professional orientations, principal leadership style) have been somewhat limited. This paper reports the results of an exploratory study of the relationship between teachers' perceptions of bureaucratic and professional role orientations and their perceptions of principal change facilitator style. A secondary purpose of this paper is to revisit the conceptualization of bureaucratic and professional work orientation in light of recent contributions to the research literature on teachers' roles in schools and the change process in schools.

Perspectives

It seems that the extent to which change efforts in an organization are successful and expeditious depends upon a number of variables: (1) the nature and characteristics of the innovation; (2) the strategies employed in initiating and implementing change; (3) the nature and characteristics of organizational members involved in the change process; and (4) the nature and characteristics of the organization in which the planned change is targeted (Bennis, Benne, & Chin, 1969; Corbett, et al., 1987; Firestone & Corbett, 1988; Fullan, 1981, 1982, 1985; Giacquinta, 1973; Havelock, 1983; Wilson & Corbett, 1983). These variables or facets of a school interact to create a unique context. Thus, planned change occurs within a particular context and the extent to which an innovation becomes long-lasting and incorporated within the everyday life of the school depends upon the interaction and quality of fit between an innovation and a school's context.

Consistent with the recognition of schools as complex organizations, current research efforts are striving to explain organizational change processes using a variety of conceptual

frameworks that consider more fully the contextual (ecological and cultural) variables observed within a school. For the purpose of this paper *context* is conceptualized as consisting of two dimensions: 1) the *ecology* or physical elements of the schools (e.g., resources, policies/rules, physical arrangements, and demographic characteristics); and 2) the *culture* or psychosocial elements of the school (e.g., attitudes, beliefs, informal norms, values, and interpersonal relationships among the various members).

This study focused on the cultural aspects of school organizations involved in planned change initiatives. Cultural elements may be examined through various psychosocial aspects of the school, including: 1) individual perceptions, intentions, and behaviors; 2) interactions among the collective organizational membership; 3) elements of the internal organizational environment; and 4) elements within the larger, external environment (Cohen & Ball, 1990; Darling-Hammond, 1990; Darling-Hammond, Wise & Pease, 1983; Elmore, 1987; Firestone & Corbett, 1988).

Current assessments of the roles played by principals and teachers in effecting successful planned organizational change in schools have been well-documented in the professional literature (e.g., Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Hall & Hord, 1987; Darling-Hammond, 1990). Similarly the literature on educational reform provides convincing arguments for the need to give particular attention to principals' and teachers' beliefs, values, and orientations toward their organizational roles (e.g., Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; Corbett, et al., 1987; Darling-Hammond, 1990; Ellett & Walberg, 1979; Lightfoot, 1983). Teachers, principals, and how they view their roles in school organizations seem to be key

elements of school organizational functioning that offer a useful template for understanding school contexts that support planned change initiatives.

Past accounts have often characterized teachers as being inherently resistant to change and rigid in their conceptions of organizational roles (Giacquinta, 1973; Hopkins, 1990). In light of current efforts to significantly alter teachers' roles in schools (e.g., empowerment, shared decision-making, collaborative and reflective professional practice), there seems to be increased attention in the literature given to the examination of corresponding changes in teachers' perceptions of their roles in school organizations. Corbett, Firestone, and Rossman (1987) suggest that teachers' initial responses to change efforts are influenced by individual and organizational role perceptions and status in school organizations and their beliefs about "who we are" and "how we do things around here" in the school. Darling-Hammond (1990) suggests that teachers may be the true gatekeepers of school change and innovation, not policy makers, school superintendents, or principals. Based on extensive research, Darling-Hammond (1990) concludes that one reason for recurrent failures of past reform attempts seems to be that "teachers' prior learning, beliefs, attitudes....[have been] rarely considered as an essential ingredient in the process of teaching itself, much less in the process of change...." (p. 238). Further, she states that an "underinvestment in teacher knowledge has killed many a reform movement...." (p.239).

Although there has been a recent proliferation of writing focused on the professionalization of teaching (Darling-Hammond, 1988; Firestone & Bader, 1992; Weick & McDaniel, 1988), others (e.g., Corwin & Borman, 1988; Kerchner, 1984) contend that teachers' role-perceptions are not much different today than they were nearly thirty years ago,

and in some ways, may be even more structured and bureaucratically-oriented. Corwin and Borman (1988) and Kerchner (1984) contend that while teachers subscribe to norms of autonomy, they are also compliant and obedient employees, and perceive teaching and their roles less like a profession and more like labor.

Principals, on the other hand, have also been described as having substantial influences on effecting positive school change outcomes (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1982; Firestone & Wilson, 1985; Hall & Hord, 1987; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hord, 1992). A number of studies have pointed to particular principal behaviors as being more or less effective in facilitating specific innovations or planned organizational change in schools (Anderson, 1990; Hall & Hord, 1987; Hord, 1992; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Rutherford, 1988). For example, descriptions of effective principal behaviors have included aspects of communication, vision, high expectations, and direct involvement with teachers and others in school organizations (Hall & Hord, 1987; Hord, 1992; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982 Thomas, 1978).

Other studies (Evans, 1988; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Wimpleberg, Teddlie, & Stringfield, 1989) have suggested greater sensitivity to context is needed to determine the effectiveness of school principals. Ellett and Walberg (1979) and Pitner (1988) discuss models of principal effectiveness that recognize the importance of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others (e.g., teachers, students) and contextual/organizational characteristics as they contribute to shaping principal behavior.

Bossert, et al. (1982) and Hallinger and Murphy (1985) have raised questions regarding whether or not any specified set of effective leader behaviors can be universally

applied across the wide range of school contexts. Murphy (1988) suggests that a lack of adequate attention to the personal, organizational, and environmental contexts in which principals function has limited our conceptual understanding of principal effectiveness/instructional leadership. Others (e.g., Bolman & Deal, 1984; Foster, 1986; Sergiovanni, 1986, 1987) reiterate this concern and suggest that: 1) effective leadership is largely dependent upon cultural, normative, and situational influences within the organizational context; 2) past efforts to identify effectiveness in principals have ignored these contextual factors and the relevance of followership; and 3) research efforts should be pursued in a way that emphasize contextual and interactive features of the organization and the reciprocal relationships that may exist relevant to principal effectiveness. Some researchers have focused on very specific contexts in which to study principal leadership style (e.g., change process).

Leadership and change process: Change Facilitator Style

Hall and his colleagues have suggested that the difficulties in understanding leadership behavior or style may be consequence of not examining it in specific enough contexts. He and others (e.g., Anderson, 1990) suggest that principal leadership style in specific contexts (e.g., change process) is a fairly stable phenomena, and that much can be gained by focusing on investigations on these specific situations. Within the context of school change, Hall and Hord (1987) have conceptualized effective principal leadership as change facilitator style (CFS). They have identified three prototypic styles that have been useful in examining this construct: Initiators, Managers, and Responders. Conceptual definitions relating to change facilitator style have been included in this paper as Appendix A.

Teachers' Bureaucratic and Professional Role Orientations

Results of extensive research efforts reported by Corwin (1965, 1970), as well as studies conducted by Kuhlman and Hoy (1974) and Forsyth and Danisiewicz (1985) suggest that beliefs about organizational roles might be explored in terms of bureaucratic and professional orientations. Based on these investigations, conceptual definitions for each orientation are as follows:

> Bureaucratic orientation reflects a reliance on the administration for direction in controversial educational matters; a high regard for the existence of rules and regulations; a high level of loyalty to the administration and the school/district; and a general feeling of self-subordination to the school/district and community.
>
> Professional orientation reflects a high degree of autonomy in professional decision-making; a focus on expertise in professional responsibilities and obligations; and a primary identification with a profession, professional colleagues, and new developments in the field.

Research Question

Since this study served an exploratory function, one primary research question guided the study:

> Are there bivariate relationships between teachers' perceptions of principal change facilitator style and teachers' bureaucratic and professional role orientations?

Conceptual Framework[1]

For this study, analyses focused on relationships among bureaucratic and professional orientations and teachers' perceptions of principals' change facilitator style (CFS) as depicted in a conceptual framework shown in Figure 1. This model is based on a synthesis of psychological (Lewin, 1947) and social systems conceptions of behavior (Getzels & Guba, 1957), and sociotechnical systems theory of organizational functioning (Owens & Steinhoff, 1976). Inherent in the model shown in Figure 1 is the recognition of multiple individual, social, and organizational factors that function in complex and simultaneously interactive relationships to influence planned organizational change in schools.

The model acknowledges that each person in a school organization brings with him/her certain knowledge, abilities, beliefs, and values (input/personal variables). These personal variables may change over time as a result of an individual's association with a particular school organization (e.g., role orientation, beliefs, attitudes, and so on). For example, as an individual begins to identify with a particular school and becomes familiar with other individuals in the school, individual beliefs and perceptions may influence, and be influenced by, the collective set of beliefs, values, and norms within the school. Such interactive relationships contribute to the development of informal, organizational norms (school culture) that guide how organizational members (e.g., teachers and principals) view "who we are" and "how we do things around here" (Corbett, et al., 1987). Thus, one might describe such relationships among organizational members' personal characteristics as a

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[1]This model does not represent a specific theory of planned organizational change , but only serves as a conceptual guide for explicating and investigating relationships among the study variables.

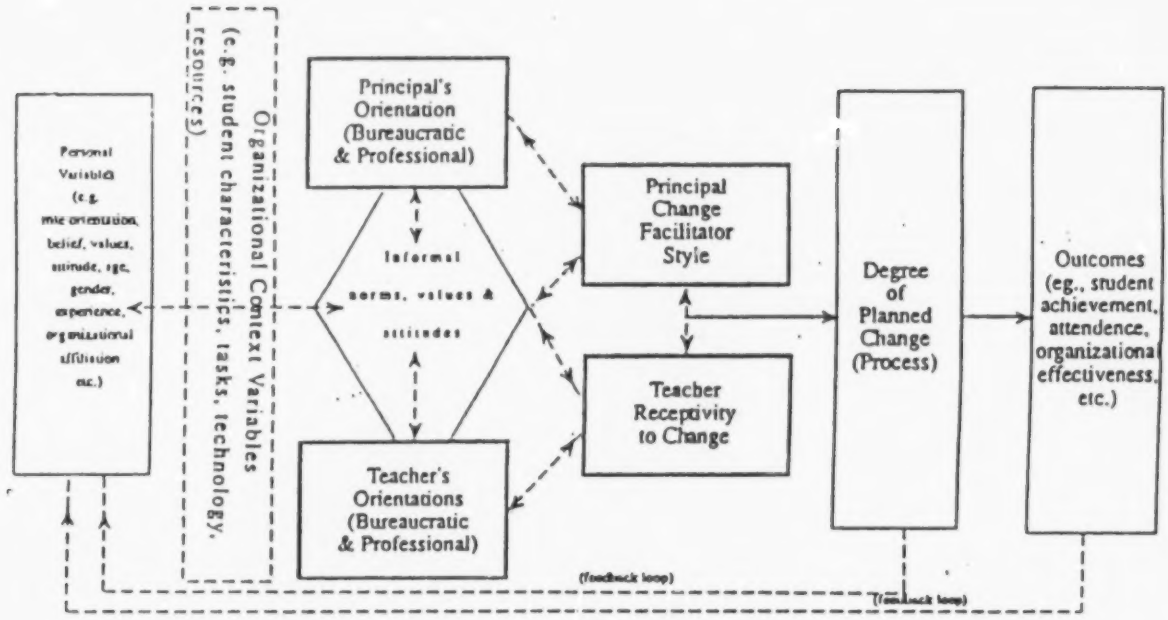
Organizational Context Variables
(e.g. student characteristics, tasks, technology, resources)
Principal's Orientation (Bureaucratic & Professional)
Informal norms, values & attitudes
Teacher's Orientations (Bureaucratic & Professional)
Principal Change Facilitator Style
Teacher Receptivity to Change
Degree of Planned Change (Process)
Outcomes (eg., student achievement, attendence, organizational effectiveness, etc.)
(feedback loop)

Figure 1. Conceptual model for study variables: Relationships between teachers' bureaucratic and professional orientations, and perceived principal change facilitator style.

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"give and take" process or a balancing act between individual and collective beliefs, norms, and values. Interactions between personal beliefs and values (e.g., role orientations, leadership style) and organizational characteristics (e.g, availability, allocation, and specificity of various subsystem elements for task, technology, and structure) result in the development of a school's organizational culture. Corbett, et al. (1987) and Darling-Hammond (1990) suggest that the influence of organizational culture may be particularly critical during periods of planned organizational change in schools. Although this model depicts complex relationships among person and contextual variables present in schools, it is important to note that this study only focused on several key variables selected from a larger group of variables that may be influencing planned organizational change.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

The sample for this study consisted of all teachers in 94 schools from throughout south Louisiana. As shown in Table 1, the school sample closely reflected the statewide distribution of all schools by level (elementary, 57%; middle, 15%; high, 17%) and by socioeconomic status (SES). Useable data were received during the spring of 1992 through the administration of an instrument packet to each teacher in the total sample of schools (n=94). At least 40% of the teachers in 81 schools (86.17%) responded to the complete instrument packet. Systematic procedures were used in data collection to assure confidentiality of responses. The total number of useable teacher responses was 1,921.

Table 1

Profile of Sample for All Schools and by School Level

Characteristics	Schools			
	All[a]	Elem	Mid	Sec
Schools responding	94	52	18	24
Percentage of total sample	100	54	18	27
Teachers surveyed	3082	1405	673	1004
Useable teacher surveys	1921	935	392	594
Percentage of useable teacher surveys(n=1921)	62.33%	48.67%	20.41%	30.92%
Return rate[b]		66.55%	58.25%	59.16%
M faculty size	33	27	40	42
Minimum faculty size	10	10	24	14
Maximum faculty size	85	47	85	80
M student size	532	443	682	650
Minimum student size	48	48	315	129
Maximum student size	1293	892	1293	1292
M SES level[d]	53.01	61.35	47.38	43.61
Standard deviation	23.67	23.76	21.22	20.24
Minimum SES Level	00.00	00.00	16.00	19.00
Maximum SES Level	98.00	98.00	87.00	96.00

[a] All=All schools
Elem=Elementary
Mid=Middle
Sec=Secondary

[b] Percentage of total number of useable teacher surveys.

[c] SES is expressed as a percentage and is computed by dividing the total number of students eligible for free on reduced cost lunches in a given school by the total number of student enrolled.

Teacher/Respondent Characteristics

The typical teacher respondent was a white, tenured, female elementary teacher with a bachelor degree. Male teachers comprised 18.1% of the total sample. Minorities comprised 21.5% of the sample, with blacks representing the largest minority group (20.4%). A majority of teachers (75.0%) were teaching in regular education situations. Every content area was represented in the sample of returned questionnaires. The largest percentage of teachers in the sample (38.7%) reported that they were teaching basic skills/elementary content. Special education teachers comprised 10.2% of the sample. Teachers in other content areas represented similar percentages, and Art/Music reflected the smallest content area representation (2.0%).

A majority of teachers (53%) reported teaching in their present school five or more years, and 67.3% of the sample reported having attained tenure in their employing school district. Teachers with six or more years of professional experience comprised 72.9% of the total sample. Most teachers (n=1511, 79.1%) reported that they were teaching in a school district where management/labor relations were unionized, and a majority of teachers (57.2%) reported being dues-paying members of a teacher union/organization. Only 35% of the teachers reported being members in one or more other professional organizations.

Instrumentation

Instrumentation used to collect data for this study included factor-analyzed versions of the Bureaucratic Orientation Scale (BOS) (Corwin, 1969; Kuhlman & Hoy, 1974; DiPaola, 1990), the Attitudes of Professional Autonomy (APA) (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985), the Change Facilitator Style Questionnaire (CFSQ) (Hall &

Vandenberghe, 1987). A demographic questionnaire was also used to collect pertinent data about the respondent group. Although a description of each instrument and the various instrument development activities are beyond the scope of this paper, a complete account of these activities and summaries of the results of extensive factor analyses are reported in Chauvin (1992).

The original version of the BOS was retained and reconstructed, factor-analyzed versions of the APA and CFSQ were used in the data collection. Total instrument scores were used for the BOS (15 items) and the CFSQ (30 items). The reconstructed APA yielded two subscale scores for analyses: Organizational Autonomy (OA) (6 items) and Interpersonal Autonomy (IA) (11 items). Teachers responded to the various instrument items using an eight (8) point, Likert-type, agreement scale for the IA, OA, and BOS (1=Strongly Disagree to 8=Strongly Agree). A similar six (6) point, Likert-type, response scale was used for responding to the CSFQ (1=Never/Not True to 6=Always/Very True). Teacher scores on the IA, OA, and BOS reflect teachers' self-perceptions, while their scores on the CFSQ reflect their perceptions of the principals' change facilitator style.

Data Analyses

A number of statistical analyses were completed in this study: descriptive statistical summaries for sample demographic characteristics and instrument items and subscales; a series of principal component, orthogonal, and oblique factor analyses for each of the instruments; Alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients for each instrument; bivariate correlations among the various factor analyzed (revised) versions of the BOS, APA, and CFSQ, both across and within schools; subsequent bivariate correlations among revised

instrument subscales for the total school sample (n=81); a series of stepwise, multiple regression analyses, and a series of t tests and ANOVA analyses. Individual teachers and school (teacher) means were used as the units of analyses in the various investigations of relationships among the study variables. A series of individual school profile plots were also completed for selected outlier schools to further examine relationships among the study variables.

Results

Cronbach Alpha internal consistent reliability coefficients for all measures were within acceptable ranges for teachers: CFSQ = .95; IA = .66; OA = .71; BOS = .81. Reliability coefficients were also obtained for each measure within individual schools having at least 15 teacher respondents (n = 59). As shown in Table 2, data analyzed at the school level demonstrated reliability estimates within acceptable ranges (.60-.69) for a majority of schools for most subscales/scales. For the CFSQ, 43 of the 59 schools had Alpha coefficients in the .90-.99 range, with 13 schools having reliability estimates in the .80-.89 range. Results of descriptive statistical summaries for all schools and by school level revealed that teachers responded to the various measures in similar ways. Elementary teachers were slightly higher in their perceptions of principal change facilitator style than middle or secondary teachers.

Table 3 provides summaries of intercorrelations between measures of teachers' bureaucratic and professional orientations (IA, OA, and BOS) and perceived principal change facilitator style (CFSQ) for all schools and by school level. Only one coefficient that was statistically significant: IA and CFSQ at the secondary school level ($r = -.61$, $p < .01$). No

Table 2

Summary of Number of Schools Distributed Within Reliability Coefficient Ranges (Cronbach's Alpha) for All Subscales/Scales
for All Schools with ≥ 15 Teacher Respondents (n=59 schools)

Alpha Range	APA[a] (22)	IA (11)	OA (6)	BOS (15)	CFSQ (30)
.90-.99				1	43
.80-.89		1	4	27	13
.70-.79	5	20	25	22	2
.60-.69	11	16	16	7	1
.50-.59	15	7	8	2	
.40-.49	10	5	4		
.30-.39	4	7	1		
.20-.29	8	1			
.10-.19	4				
.00-.09	1				

[a] Original total instrument version used in the data collection process.
[b] Number of items on the subscale/scale.

Table 3

Summary of Intercorrelations Among Measures of Bureaucratic and Professional Orientations and Principal Change Facilitator Style (CFSQ) for All Schools and by School Level (n=81)[a]

Subscale/Scale	CFSQ
Interpersonal Autonomy	
All	-.18
Elementary	-.08
Middle	-.07
Secondary	-.61*
Organizational Autonomy	
All	-.20
Elementary	-.24
Middle	-.37
Secondary	-.35
Bureaucratic Orientations	
All	.20
Elementary	.24
Middle	.25
Secondary	.31

[a] Schools with $\geq$ 40% teacher response rates.
* $p < .01$

other statistically significant findings were evident for all schools or for schools at other levels. While not statistically significant, a consistent pattern of correlations between Organizational Autonomy (OA) and the CFSQ were all negative in direction and moderate in magnitude. An opposite pattern was noted for the correlations between the BOS and the CFSQ: positive in direction, rather moderate in magnitude, but not statistically significant. Although statistical significance was not obtained, the magnitude of these correlations and the small sample sizes present in the school level analyses suggest that replication of these analyses with larger sample sizes would likely result in statistically significant findings.

Significant findings were also noted in other analyses completed for the study variables. For example, results of stepwise, multiple regression analyses revealed teachers' bureaucratic orientation (BOS) to be an important variable in explaining various in principal change facilitator style (CFSQ) ($r = .33$, $p < .05$). Bivariate correlational analyses between school socioeconomic status (SES) and school (teacher) mean scores for bureaucratic orientation (BOS) revealed a positive and mild relationship ($r = .31$, $p < .005$).

A series of t-test and factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were completed using selected individual and school demographic variables. Main effects and interaction effects were examined in all factorial ANOVA procedures. Individual teacher scores, and school (teacher) means were variously used as the units of analysis. Demographic variables used in t tests included gender, tenure status, participation in a statewide teacher assessment program, and dues-paying union membership. Demographic characteristics that were used as independent variables in the factorial ANOVA procedures were: 1) school level (3 levels); 2) years of experience (9 levels); 3) number of

memberships in professional organizations (5 levels); 4) educational/degree level (4 levels); and 5) teacher type/classroom assignment (e.g., regular, remedial or special education, other) (4 levels).

Main effects and all possible interaction effects were examined in all ANOVA procedures. In instances where a significant F-value was obtained, Scheffe's multiple comparisons tests were completed to identify the specific groups for which significant differences were present.

t-test results. Two statistically significant findings were obtained for t tests comparing teacher responses based on tenure status (non-tenured/tenured): 1) tenured teachers were higher than non-tenured teachers in self-perceptions of organizational autonomy (OA) ($t = -2.64$, $p < .01$; mean-difference score = -.95); and 2) non-tenured teachers perceived their principals to be higher in change facilitator style than did tenured teachers ($t = 2.53$, $p < .01$; mean-difference score = 3.03). Similar findings were noted in comparisons of teacher mean scores on the study measures based on teachers' union membership status (i.e., dues-paying union member or not). Two statistically significant differences were noted: 1) teachers who were not members of a teachers' union had higher mean scores on the OA subscale than did teachers who were union members ($t = -2.45$, $p < .02$; mean-difference score = -.82); and 2) teachers who were not union members perceived their principals to have higher levels of change facilitator style than teachers who were union members ($t = 1.96$, $p < .05$; mean-difference score = 2.21).

ANOVA results. A statistically significant F-value was obtained for the ANOVA completed for Organizational Autonomy (OA) ($F = 1.19$, $p < .02$). In this model, one

statistically significant main effect was observed for education/degree level ($F = 6.85$, $p < .0001$). Several statistically significant interactions were also noted: 1) a two-way interaction effect between education/degree level and experience ($F = 1.80$, $p < .03$); and 2) a three-way interaction effect between teacher type, education/degree level and experience ($F = 1.74$, $p < .02$). No statistically significant differences between pairs of mean scores for the main effect of education/degree level was found using Scheffe's (1953) multiple comparisons test.

A statistically significant F-value was also obtained for an ANOVA completed for the CFSQ ($F = 1.30$, $p < .001$). Within the model, two main effects were statistically significant: school level ($F = 24.38$, $p < .0001$) and education/degree level ($F = 5.56$, $p < .001$). Four statistically significant interaction effects were also noted within the model: 1) teacher type and education/degree level ($F = 4.05$, $p < .0001$); 2) school level, education/degree level, and number of memberships in professional organizations ($F = 3.01$, $p < .001$); 3) school level, teacher type, experience, and education/degree level ($F = 2.12$, $p < .0001$); and 4) teacher type, experience, education/degree level, and number of memberships in professional organizations ($F = 3.16$, $p < .002$).

Scheffe's (1953) multiple comparisons tests were completed for each of the two statistically significant main effects identified in the ANOVA model for the CFSQ to identify pairs of groups for which statistically significant ($p < .05$) differences were present. Results of these comparisons demonstrated statistically significant differences between groups of teachers for the variables of school level, and education/degree level. Teachers in elementary schools perceived their principals as evidencing higher levels of principal change facilitator

style than did teachers in middle schools (mean-difference score = 6.960), as well as teachers in secondary schools (mean-difference score = 8.472). However, no statistically significant differences were found between teachers in middle and secondary schools based on their perceptions principal change facilitator style. Teachers with a bachelor degree had higher mean scores on the CFSQ than did teachers with a master+30/specialist degree (mean-difference score = 6.013).

Common Method Variance

Probes of common method variance issues were made by computing within-school correlation matrices using multiple variable combinations of subscales/scales for all schools (n=81) using teachers as the units of analysis. The results of within school analyses were considerably at odds with the between school analyses. Although not a complete test, these results suggested that concerns about the potential role of common method variance in systematically inflating correlations among variables in the study are rather unwarranted.

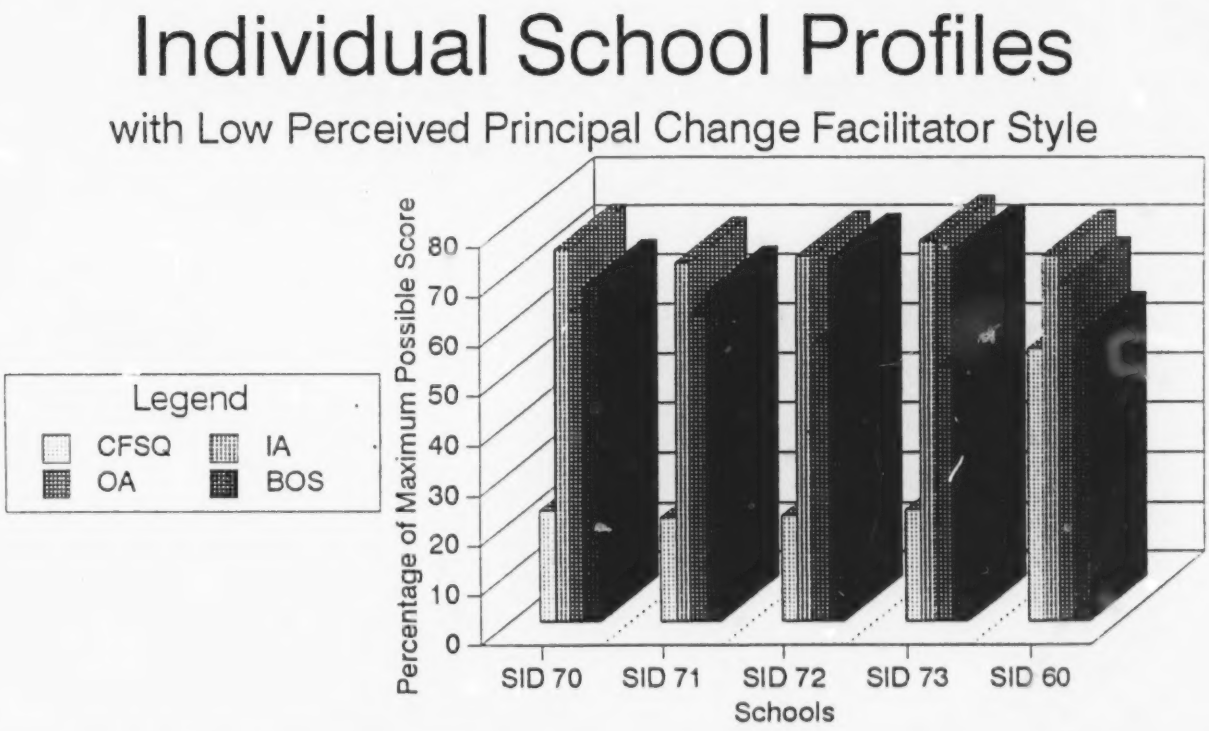
Additional Analyses

Results of analyses pertinent to the primary research question yielded several mild to moderate relationships between study variables. These results, when compared to the results of within-school correlations, suggested that additional insights may be gained by identifying several schools in the data set that were observed to be outlier examples, when compared to the general trends observed in the data. Selected schools were further examined by generating sets of 2 x 2 scatter plots on which actual scores on the IA, OA, and BOS were plotted along with the school (teacher) mean scores on the CFSQ. For example, schools with the highest and with the lowest school (teacher) mean scores on each of the measures were

selected from these scatter plots to investigate unique patterns of scores that may be evidenced in these school profiles. School profiles were generated for the five schools with the highest CFSQ school (teacher) mean scores, as well as for the five schools with the lowest CFSQ school (teacher) mean scores. School (teacher) mean scores on the various measures were converted to scores reflecting the mean percentage of the maximum possible score (x% maximum) to facilitate graphic comparison of subscale/scale scores. Line graphs and bar graphs were used to profile and examine patterns of relationships between the school (teacher) mean scores on the independent and dependent measures within individual schools.

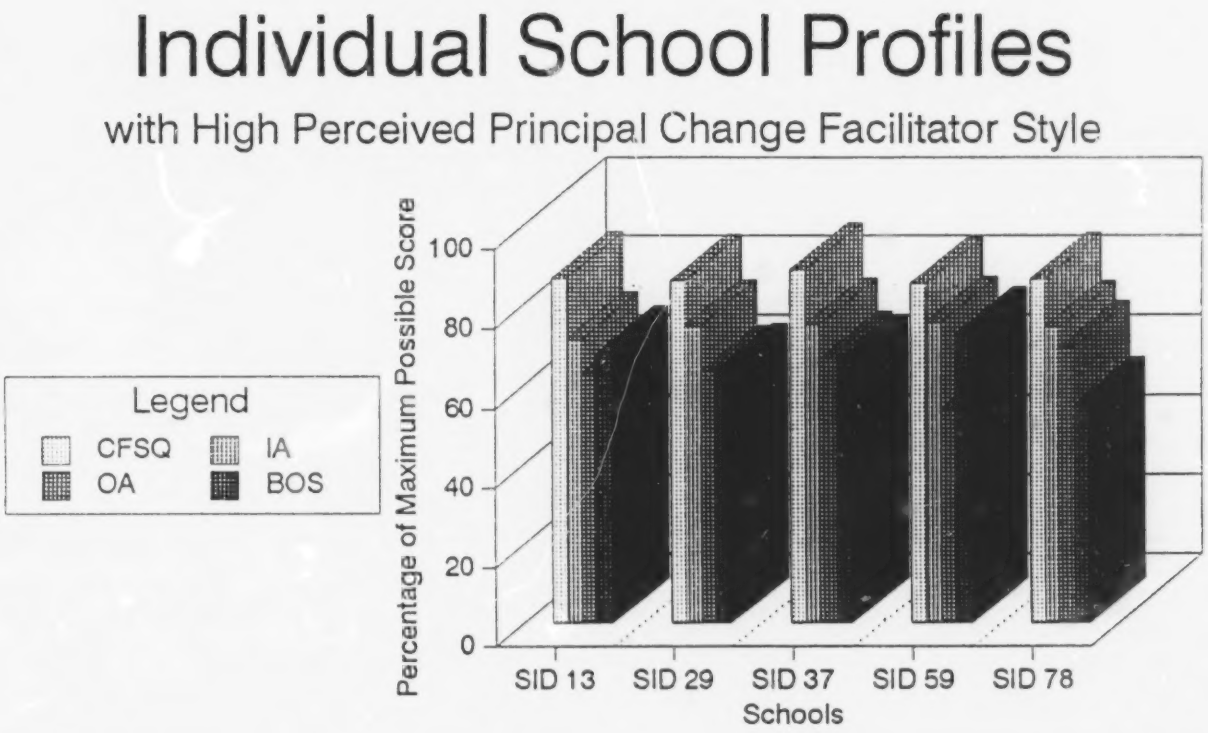
Comparisons of the contrasting groups of schools and analysis of individual school profiles revealed interesting and unique patterns of absolute level scores (x% maximum). As shown in Figure 2, four of the five schools with very low levels of perceived principal change facilitator style evidenced patterns reflecting IA and BOS school (teacher) mean scores substantially higher than OA school (teacher) mean scores. Upon further examination, it was noted that four of these five schools were in the same school district. Figure 3 shows that the top five schools demonstrating very high levels of perceived principal change facilitator style revealed similar patterns in school (teacher) mean scores on the IA, OA, and BOS; however the differences between subscale/scale mean scores were not as dramatic. Interestingly, each of these schools was located in a different school district.

Examination of individual school profiles with the highest absolute scores on the IA, OA, and BOS, as well as profiles of schools with the lowest absolute scores on these measures revealed obvious differences among schools.



CFSQ	22.53	21.05	21.37	22.63	54.84
IA	74.89	72.39	73.52	76.7	73.67
OA	62.31	61.93	55.88	51.13	68.02
BOS	67.67	66.24	72.92	74.58	56.99

Figure 2. Individual school profiles of the bottom five schools in the sample with the lowest levels of perceived principal change facilitator style (school [teacher] mean scores on CFSQ).



CFSQ	86.9	86.27	89.07	85.56	86.6
IA	71.57	74.76	75.26	75.59	74.5
OA	63.1	63.33	66.69	54	69.46
BOS	68.08	63.69	65.83	72.98	55.29

Figure 3. Individual school profiles of the top five schools in the sample with the highest levels of perceived principal change facilitator style (school [teacher] mean scores on the CFSQ).

Discussion and Conclusions

The results of this study are interesting from a variety of perspectives. First, the correlations between teachers' work orientations and their perceptions of principal leadership style support the highly influential role of the principal in school organizations. Second, insights gained from this study shed new light on the future conceptualizations of teachers' role orientations (e.g., bureaucratic and professional) and principal leadership style. Third, findings of this study support the important role of *context* in understanding schools as complex social systems. Fourth, this study points to the need explain both relationships among variables *across* schools, as well as differences in relationships in among variables *within* schools. Each of these perspectives is discussed in the following sections.

Relationships between Teachers' Work Orientations and their Perceptions of Principal Leadership Style

Correlations between teachers' self-perceptions of Organizational Autonomy (OA) and teachers' perceptions of principal change facilitator style (CFSQ) were all negative in direction and very moderate in magnitude for the total sample of schools and by school level. Conversely, correlations between teacher responses for Bureaucratic Orientation (BOS) and the CFSQ were positive in direction, but similar in magnitude.

These results are consistent with current conceptions of principal change facilitating behaviors. For example, a principal who is perceived as having a high level of CFS ("Initiator") is characterized as proactive, involved with teachers in their work, and clear in their communication of expectations, school vision, and long-term outcomes. Given a strong

commitment to the organization and linkage between the principal and teachers, it is not surprising that teachers' self-perceptions of bureaucratic orientation are positively associated with their perceptions of principal CFS.

However, it is not clear what these results really reflect when they are considered collectively. Are teachers more committed to the organization when they perceive themselves to have low levels of organizational autonomy? If teachers are more bureaucratically oriented, does this mean they assume subordinate roles to principals who are perceived to be high in proactive/strategic leadership style (CFS). As was evidenced in this study, if teachers are simultaneously low on Organizational Autonomy and high on Bureaucratic Orientation in schools where the principal is perceived to be high in CFS (proactive/strategic leadership), does this reflect deference to authority, administrative loyalty, or organizational commitment and identity? What does it mean when teachers have similar work/role orientations, but perceive the principal to have very low change facilitating behaviors? Although several specific relationships were identified between teachers' work/role orientations and their perceptions of principals' change facilitator style, little support was provided in this study for the overall utility of these role orientation constructs for understanding change process in schools. Thus, clear distinctions between such elements are needed to fully address the relationships between teachers' role perceptions and their views of principal leadership style.

What is clearly reflected by the findings in this study is the importance of teachers' beliefs and values in understanding how they perceive others and the organization -- aspects of school culture. Given a model of principal behavior, previously conceptualized by Ellett and Walberg (1979), other more recent contributions to the literature (e.g., Blumberg &

Greenfield, 1986; Lightfoot, 1983), and the conceptual framework shown in Figure 1, it seems that the roles of teachers' beliefs, values, and perceptions are important factors in determining the effectiveness of principal leadership in specific school contexts. While such relationships have been documented in qualitative studies, it seems that additional work is needed to verify these relationships using quantitative methods as well. Based upon these findings, future inquiries targeting relationships between various aspects of role orientation (e.g., bureaucratic and professional) and principal CFS appear fruitful for expanding conceptual frameworks for principal leadership, as well as theoretical frameworks to accommodate unique contextual features at different school levels. How might future investigations of teachers' professional orientations to their work roles be framed? What has been learned from this study to enhance future conceptualizations of the professional orientation construct and the systematic study of relationships between this variable and others (e.g., principal leadership style)?

Teachers' Professional Orientation

The results of this study lead to the conclusion that there is a need to re-examine both conceptual definitions and measures currently associated with the professional orientation construct. Although the APA was confirmed in this study as a two-dimensional measure of attitudinal autonomy, these results suggest sole reliance on measures of autonomy may be too limited and may lead to confusing or erroneous conclusions regarding the broader conception of professional orientation. In recent years, there has been a resurgence in the literature concerned with the professionalization of teaching. In part, this renewed interest in the professionalism of teachers has resulted from current educational reform initiatives that

purport to significantly alter systemic aspects of school organizations that include restructuring teachers' roles and responsibilities. Despite this renewed interest, research efforts of the past 15 to 20 years have heavily identified professional orientation with elements of attitudinal autonomy. Earlier conceptions of professional orientation have been defined in terms of autonomy from other individuals within the organization, as well as autonomy from organizational structures and processes. Thus, the more independently individuals operated within the organization, the more they were considered to be professionally oriented. Based upon these earlier conceptions of professional orientation, instruments such as the Attitudes of Professional Autonomy (APA) (Forsyth & Danisiewicz, 1985) have often been used as proxy measures of the more global conception of teachers' professional orientations. Recent conceptions of professionalism among teachers suggest that collaborative efforts and group consensus are also important elements of professional orientations in teaching.

Based upon the current discussion in the literature, it seems that current conceptualizations of professional orientation may no longer be best described in terms of autonomy, expertise, and an outer reference group. In these writings, school organizations are depicted as sites for reform initiatives that include school restructuring, teacher empowerment, collaborative decision making, and professional and collaborative reflective practice. In these contexts, how are teachers' involvement in professional decision making, goal consensus building, and site-based management practices reflected in current conceptions of professional orientation? Before appropriateness of operational definitions can be explored, there is a need to clarify and refine conceptual understandings about variables to

be measured. For example, clarity in conceptual definitions of professional orientations of teachers is needed before measures (e.g., the Attitudes of Professional Autonomy) can be refined or new ones developed.

Certainly, autonomy may be a part of professional orientation, but issues related to professional practice and ethics may also be important aspects of this construct. These have yet to be fully explicated in the literature pertaining to conceptual and operational definitions of professional orientation. To discuss autonomy as an element of professional orientation means that it must be considered within specific school organizational contexts. To do otherwise may be confusing and perhaps even misleading. For example, teachers may describe themselves as being autonomous from the organization and not behave very professionally in practice. Thus, behaving in autonomous ways may or may not operationally define one's professional orientation. How are the contextual influences of particular school organizations represented in the extent to which teachers are depicted as being more or less professionally oriented?

The extent to which a teacher perceives an organization, as a whole, may strongly influence how s/he responds to situations and/or makes decisions and perceives his/her roles within the organization. For example, if a school district has adopted a new curriculum program shown to benefit students' learning, a teacher who chooses not to cooperate may be acting autonomously, but at the same time, may be acting in an unprofessional manner. However, if teachers in a school decide that they are going to defy school rules regarding corporal punishment of students, a teacher who chooses not to join these teachers may be acting professionally and autonomously as well.

The results in this study suggest that there is a significant need to re-examine, and perhaps, re-define the concept of professional orientation to include current conceptions of professionalism in school organizational contexts. Only then, can appropriate measures for studying the construct and relationships with other variables of interest (e.g., teacher receptivity to change) be further developed. As such measures are developed, there may also be a need to consider alternative data collection methods (e.g., interview, critical incidents or agreement questionnaires, and/or qualitative research methodology). Current measures (e.g., APA) may not adequately control for the influence of contextual variables permeating respondents' work environments.

For example, in a school context that, as a whole, is perceived to be highly collaborative and strongly professionally oriented, a teacher who is also professionally oriented may describe self-perceptions of role orientation as low on interpersonal and/or organizational autonomy because the organizational orientation (high professional) is congruent with the teacher's beliefs about professionalism. As a result, the teacher is aligned with and committed to these similar beliefs and organizational norms. If a teacher works in a school where personal beliefs and school norms (e.g., role orientations) are contradictory, rather than similar, a different set of responses would probably result. Existing measures may not be sensitive enough to assess these fine distinctions and contextually-specific incidents. Teachers' beliefs about their roles and "who we are" (Corbett, et al., 1987) and their prior knowledge (Darling-Hammond, 1990) are important considerations in current efforts to restructure the form and function of school organizations. Recent attention to professional belief systems of teachers and what it means to be a professional teacher appear

to provide a ready forum for continuing conceptual and measurement efforts to define professional orientation of individuals in school organizations.

Teachers' Bureaucratic Orientation

Past investigations of bureaucratic and professional orientations have defined these constructs as distinct, but not as polar opposites (Corwin, 1965, 1970; Erez & Israeli, 1980; Kuhlman & Hoy, 1974; Thornton, 1970; Wilensky, 1974). In some ways, the results of this study suggest that polarity may exist between at least one dimension of professional orientation (e.g., organizational autonomy) and bureaucratic orientation; while another dimension of professional orientation (e.g., interpersonal autonomy) may be independent of bureaucratic orientation, but not opposite. However, no determination whether bureaucratic and professional orientations are coexisting constructs or bipolar opposites can be made until more comprehensive conceptual and operational definitions of professional orientation become available.

For example, an important and clear distinction between organizational commitment (in terms of beliefs, values, and vision) and administrative loyalty (in terms of allegiance and deference to administrative authority, and adherence to rules and procedures) appears needed. Organizational commitment may closely align with a conception of professional orientation, while administrative loyalty may be reflective of bureaucratic orientation. Clarification and further refinement of these constructs seem particularly indicated in light of current efforts to enhance levels of organizational commitment and cohesiveness among personnel (e.g., teachers and principals) in school organizations (Firestone & Corbett, 1988; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hall, 1987, 1988; Joyce, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1986). Thus, as professional

orientation is re-examined, re-defined, and operationally defined, it will be important to consider how current conceptions of bureaucratic orientation compare and change as well.

Sensitivity to School Context Variables

In addition to the significant findings of this study, the general pattern of nonsignificant, but moderate, correlations between Interpersonal Autonomy (IA), Organizational Autonomy (OA), Bureaucratic Orientation (BOS), and teachers' perceptions of principal leadership style (CFSQ) in school level analyses lend support to the current calls for greater sensitivity to school context in understanding principal leadership and school effectiveness (Murphy, 1988; Wimpleberg, et al., 1989).

A common perspective held by the general public is that teachers in low-SES schools are not as professionally oriented as teachers in high-SES schools. Although the findings in this study suggest that teachers in low-SES schools do align more closely with the administration and adhere to rules, procedures, and standardized modes of practice, the lack of significant relationships between SES and other aspects of role orientation serves to somewhat debunk these common perspectives about teachers' role perceptions.

As one interprets the significant relationship between teachers' self-perceptions of bureaucratic orientation and SES, it is not clear whether teachers' responses reflect their beliefs/perceptions of their roles in schools, how they act in the specific context in which they work, or a combination of both. That is, did teachers respond to the BOS clearly in terms of their general beliefs/orientation about their roles in school organizations, or did their responses reflect behaviors in the current context in which they work? It may be that current survey instrumentation is not sophisticated enough to control for such influences, or current

construct definitions are not comprehensive enough to accommodate contextual influences on individuals' role perceptions.

Past criticisms (e.g., Cuban, 1983, 1984; Murphy, 1988) suggest that what is known about effective leadership has been primarily observed in low SES school contexts. The results of this study suggest that proactive/strategic leadership style is generally observed across schools with varying SES levels. Thus, as progress is made in refining a comprehensive conception of principal leadership, specifically within the context of planned organizational change, the lack of association of particular leadership styles with SES should contribute to greater parsimony in subsequent theory development.

Analyses of contrasting schools with high and low levels of perceived principal change facilitator style suggest that interactions among principal leadership effectiveness, teachers' work orientation, within a context of planned organizational change may best be understood as a within-school phenomenon. Results obtained in analyses of scatter plots and graphs for outlier examples, as compared to the results of analyses for variation among schools, are markedly different. In other analyses of the data (Chauvin, 1992), not fully discussed in this paper, within-school correlations support the conclusions drawn here as well. Thus, it appears that 1) analyses using school (teacher) mean scores for the total sample of schools may mask important and differing sets of relationships among variables at various school levels; and 2) it makes no sense to discuss relationships among these variables without consideration of school level.

While these findings highlight the importance of context, they also highlight the difficulties that have been often cited in attempts to study essential elements of school

organizations. Based upon the results of this exploratory study, it seems difficult to come to any general set of conclusions regarding relationships between variables without first considering context variables (e.g., demographics characteristics: school size, school level, socioeconomic status of students). Similar difficulties are faced when one attempts to cultivate school cultures conducive to change. Although it seems clear that principals' and teachers' perceptions of their roles, their beliefs, attitudes and values, and their perceptions of one another are key considerations in cultivating a school culture, a critical attribute is the "fit" among these cultural variables and the ecological features of the school that support and nurture successful planned change initiatives (Boyd, 1992; Hall & Hord, 1987; Hord, 1992; Wood & Thompson, 1993).

The largest organizational unit that one can change in education is the school (Boyd, 1992; Goodlad, 1984; Hall & Hord, 1987; Joyce, 1990; Wood & Thompson, 1993). School districts are changed school-by-school. For change agents, unique differences among various school contexts becomes paradoxical: working within a single school to facilitate change can be accomplished, but applying the findings across school contexts cannot be as easily achieved. Yet, as is suggested by the school profile results for schools with very low perceived principal change facilitator style, district level factors may also play an influential role. Once again, the characteristic fit among these variables is a crucial factor. Thus, the findings reported here point to the need to use multiple methodologies and the greater complementary use of quantitative and qualitative approaches to research on schools as complex organizations. In essence, there is a critical need to develop and expand comprehensive, theoretical frameworks to explain both relationships among variables across

schools, as well as differences in relationships among variables within schools. The development of such frameworks could be instrumental to principals, teachers, and other change facilitators in effecting positive planned change in schools.

The culture of a school reflects the interweaving of ecological and psychosocial elements that exist both within and outside the school organization. When schools seek to improve, it is necessary to focus on the individual and collective values, beliefs, and norms of these internal and external environments that make up the context in which change is to occur (Boyd, 1992; Corbett, et al., 1987; Sarason, 1982). Teachers' and principals' experiences and interactions create frames of reference with which they interpret innovations and initiatives for change (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Boyd, 1992; Hord, 1992).

Given the concerns raised regarding contextual features of school organizations, it seems that future research using various units of analysis in longitudinal studies that span the various stages of planned organizational change in school are needed. Such efforts are needed to further explore elements of change process (e.g., teacher receptivity to various types of change) and related variables (e.g., principal leadership style, school level, role orientations) as they are observed independently and in interaction with one another and, most importantly, at each stage of the planned change process. Cultivating school cultures for change may require different strategies involving different sets of elements at different stages of the change process (introduction, adoption, implementation, incorporation).

Qualitative case studies of various school contexts that reflect involvement in organizational change processes may shed new light on understanding the interactive roles of teachers' beliefs and principals' leadership style in the ongoing and developmental process of

cultivating a school context that is conducive to successful change. Given the dynamic and interactive features of schools as complex organizations and the important roles of teachers and principals in schools, longitudinal studies spanning each stage of the change process in schools (i.e., from introduction to incorporation) may facilitate the identification of key variables for understanding change process in schools. These variables may also begin to reveal common threads across various school contexts that can contribute to refined understandings of the fit among principal leadership, school context, organizational role orientations, and various aspects of the change process in schools.

Effectiveness is, in part, dependent upon schools' abilities to maintain stability and manage change in response to the ever-present demands of the external environment and a changing student clientele. This study represents an initial exploration of key variables which appear to have potential for shedding new light on a very complex process that is essential to cultivating school contexts for successful change. In recent years, schools have been faced with recurring calls to change various elements of their organizational form and function. This time in history and the complexity of school organizational contexts suggests a challenging and compelling opportunity to pursue study of general and unique relationships, rather than just accept them as too complex to be explained. Insights gained from such pursuits seem to hold important keys to expanding our knowledge about cultivating supportive contexts for planned organizational change in general, and more particularly, in schools.

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APPENDIX A:

Conceptual Definitions Related to Principal Change Facilitator Style

Conceptual Definitions Related to Principal Change Facilitator Style

Three change facilitator styles, Initiator, Manager and Responder, have been operationally described by Hall, Rutherford, Hord and Huling (1984):

Initiators have clear, decisive long-range policies and goals that transcend but include implementation of the current innovation. They tend to have very strong beliefs about what good schools and teaching should be like and work intensely to attain this vision. Decisions are made in relations to their goals for the school and in terms of what they believe to be best for students, which is based on current knowledge of classroom practice. Initiators have strong expectations for students, teachers and themselves. They convey and monitor these expectations through frequent contacts with teachers and clear explication of how the school is to operate and how teachers are to teach. When they feel it is in the best interest of their school, particularly the students, Initiators will seek changes in district programs or policies or they will reinterpret them to suit the needs of the school. Initiators will be adamant but not unkind, they solicit input from staff and then decisions are made in terms of the goals of the school, even if some are ruffled by their directness and high expectations.

Managers represent a broader range of behaviors. They demonstrate both responsive behaviors to situations or people and they also initiate actions in support of the change effort. The variations in their behavior seem to be linked to their rapport with teachers and central office staff as well as how well they understand and buy into a particular

change effort. Managers work without fanfare to provide basic support to facilitate teachers' use of an innovation. They keep teachers informed about decisions and are sensitive to teacher needs. They will defend their teachers from what are perceived as excessive demands. When they learn that the central office wants something to happen in their school they then become very involved with their teachers in making it happen. Yet, they do not typically initiate attempts to move beyond the basics of what is imposed. Responders place heavy emphasis on allowing teachers and others the opportunity to take the lead. They believe their primary role is to maintain a smooth running school by focusing on traditional administrative tasks, keeping teachers content and treating students well. They view teachers as strong professionals who are able to carry out their instructional role with little guidance. Responders emphasize the personal side of their relationships with teachers and others. Before they make decisions they often give everyone an opportunity to have input so as to weigh their feelings or to allow others to make the decision. A related characteristic is the tendency toward making decisions in terms of immediate circumstances rather than in terms of longer range instructional school goals. This seems to be due in part to their desire to please others and in part to their more limited vision of how their school and staff should change in the future (pp.23-24).

Hall and George (1988) and Hall and Vandenberghe (1987) provide a measurement framework for identifying principal change facilitator style based upon teachers perceptions of the principal's day-to-day behavior. The Change Facilitator Style Questionnaire (CSFQ) (Hall & Vandenberghe, 1987) is completed by teachers and is used to obtain data according to three

dimensions, each measured by a bi-polar pair of scales. These are briefly described in Hall and George (1988) as follows:

I. Concern for People

The Concern for People dimension is measured by two bi-polar scales: social/informal and formal/meaningful. At the social/informal extreme of this bipolar dimension, the principal is involved in discussions with clients (e.g., teachers) that are primarily concerned with moment to moment topics and many of these topics are unrelated to work. At the formal/meaningful end of the dimension, principal discussions are characterized as task-related and focused on school priorities, teaching and learning and other substantial issues. While personal concerns and feelings are not ignored, they are addressed in personally meaningful ways.

II. Organizational Efficiency

Organizational efficiency is the second dimension identified in the CFSQ and is measured by the bi-polar scales of administrative efficiency and trust in others. In this dimension a principal's administrative focus is conceptualized as being on a continuum that ranges from high "administrative efficiency", characterized by clear procedures, available resources and smooth operational function, to high "trust in others" that is characterized by casual, informal and less consistent articulation of procedures and delegation of tasks.

III. Strategic Sense

This third dimension of change facilitator style is measured by the two bi-polar scales named Day to Day and Vision and Planning. To varying degrees, principals are

able to retain an image of long term goals and their relationships to daily, weekly, and monthly activities. At the day to day extreme of this dimension, principals are characterized as being highly concerned with the present moment and lack the foresight and anticipation of future consequences and developments within the organizational context. On the other hand, the opposite extreme of the dimension represented by vision and planning is indicative of long-term vision that is integrated with how day to day activities serve as means to the accomplishment of long term goals and desired ends.